

Unit 5

Heredity

Chapter 11: Mendel and the Gene Idea

Mendel

- When Mendel crossed contrasting, true-breeding white- and purple-flowered pea plants
 - All of the F_1 hybrids were purple
 - No “blending”
- When Mendel crossed the F_1 hybrids
 - Many of the F_2 plants had purple flowers, but some had white
 - Mendel discovered a ratio of about 3:1 purple to white flowers in the F_2 generation

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- Mendel reasoned that the heritable factor (**gene**) for white flowers was hidden or masked in the presence of the purple-flower factor
 - He called
 - the purple flower color **dominant**
 - the white flower color **recessive**
 - The factor for white flowers was not diluted or destroyed because it reappeared in the F₂ generation

Mendel determined

1. Alternative versions of genes account for variations in inherited characters
 - Now called **alleles**
2. For each character, an organism inherits two alleles, one from each parent
3. If the two alleles at a locus differ, then the **dominant allele** determines the organism's appearance, and the **recessive allele** has no noticeable effect on appearance
4. The two alleles for a heritable character separate (segregate) during gamete formation and end up in different gametes
 - Now known as the **law of segregation**

Useful Genetic Vocabulary

- **Homozygous** =

- An organism with two identical alleles for a gene
- True-breeding

- **Heterozygous** =

- An organism that has two different alleles for a gene
- NOT true-breeding

- **Phenotype** =

- Physical appearance

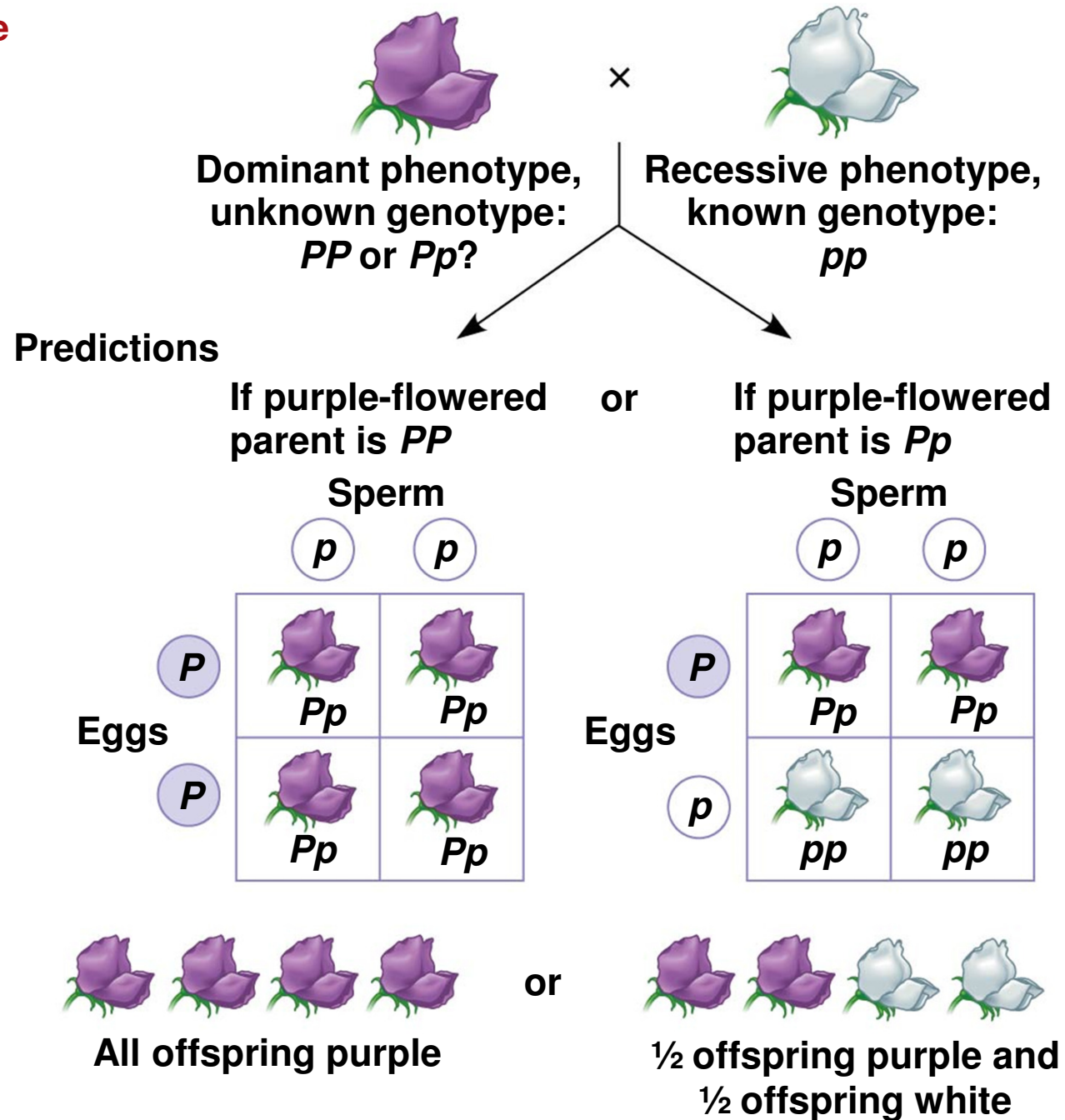
- **Genotype** =

- Genetic makeup

Crosses

- How can we tell the genotype of an individual with the dominant phenotype?
 - Such an individual could be either homozygous dominant or heterozygous
- The answer is to carry out a **testcross**
 - Breeding the mystery individual with a homozygous recessive individual
- If any offspring display the recessive phenotype, the mystery parent must be heterozygous

Figure 11.7 **Technique**



- **Monohybrid cross =**

- A cross between 2 organisms that are both heterozygous for 1 trait
- Results in a phenotypic ratio of 3:1

- **Dihybrid cross =**

- A cross between 2 organisms that are both heterozygous for 2 traits
- Results in phenotypic ratio of 9:3:3:1
- Can determine whether two genes are linked

The Law of Independent Assortment

- The results of Mendel's dihybrid experiments are the basis for the **law of independent assortment**
 - It states that each pair of alleles segregates independently of each other pair of alleles during gamete formation
- This law applies to genes on different, nonhomologous chromosomes or those far apart on the same chromosome
 - Genes located near each other on the same chromosome tend to be inherited together or “linked”

Practice Problems

- How many unique gametes could be produced through independent assortment by an individual with the following genotype?
 - $AA = 1$
 - $Aa = 2$
 - $AaBb = 4$
 - $AaBbCcDdEe = 32$
 - $2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2$
 - $AABbccDDee = 2$
 - $1 \times 2 \times 1 \times 1 \times 1$
 - $ABcDe$ OR $AbcDe$
 - $AabbCcddEe = 8$
 - $2 \times 1 \times 2 \times 1 \times 2$

$\sim AbCdE$	$\sim abCdE$
$\sim AbcdE$	$\sim abcdE$
$\sim Abcde$	$\sim abcde$
$\sim AbCde$	$\sim abCde$

Laws of Probability

- Ex: Dihybrid cross (YyRr x YyRr), what is the probability offspring are:
 - YYRR
 - $\frac{1}{4}$ (Probability of YY) \times $\frac{1}{4}$ (RR) = $\frac{1}{16}$
 - YyRR
 - $\frac{1}{2}$ (Probability of Yy = $\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4}$) \times $\frac{1}{4}$ (RR) = $\frac{1}{8}$
 - YyRr
 - $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$

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- Ex: What is the probability that following pairs of parents will produce the indicated offspring?

- $AABBCC \times aabbcc \rightarrow AaBbCc$

- $1 \times 1 \times 1 = 1$

- $AABbCc \times AaBbCc \rightarrow AAbbCC$

- $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{32}$

- $AaBbCc \times AaBbCc \rightarrow AaBbCc$

- $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{8}$

- $aaBbCC \times AABbcc \rightarrow AaBbCc$

- $1 \times \frac{1}{2} \times 1 = \frac{1}{2}$

Other Patterns of Inheritance

- **Complete dominance** occurs when phenotypes of the heterozygote and dominant homozygote are identical
- In **incomplete dominance**, the phenotype of heterozygote is an intermediate somewhere between the phenotypes of the two parental varieties
 - Ex: Flower color in snapdragons
 - RR = Red, WW = White, RW = Pink
- In **codominance**, the phenotypes of both alleles are fully expressed in the heterozygote
 - Ex: Coat color in cattle
 - RR = Red, WW = White, RW = Roan (Red AND White)

■ Multiple Alleles

- A gene that has more than 2 alleles
- EX: the four phenotypes of the ABO blood group in humans are determined by three alleles of the gene: I^A , I^B , and i

$I^A I^A$ or $I^A i$ = Type A

$I^B I^B$ or $I^B i$ = Type B

$I^A I^B$ = Type AB

ii = Type O

■ Polygenic inheritance

- Trait controlled by 2 or more genes
 - An additive effect of two or more genes on a single phenotype resulting in a continuum
- Ex: Skin color in humans

Pedigree Analysis

- A **pedigree** is a family tree that describes the interrelationships of parents and children across generations
- Inheritance patterns of particular traits can be traced and described using pedigrees
- Pedigrees can also be used to make predictions about future offspring
- Key
 - Square = male; Circle = female
 - Shaded = affected
 - Half shaded = carrier

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CHAPTER 12: THE CHROMOSOMAL BASIS OF INHERITANCE

Sex-linked genes

- In humans, females are XX, and males are XY
- A gene that is located on either sex chromosome is called a **sex-linked gene**
 - **Y-linked genes**
 - There are few of these
 - Passed from father to all sons
 - **X-linked genes**
 - Fathers pass X-linked alleles to ALL of their daughters but NONE of their sons!
 - Mothers can pass X-linked alleles to both sons and daughters

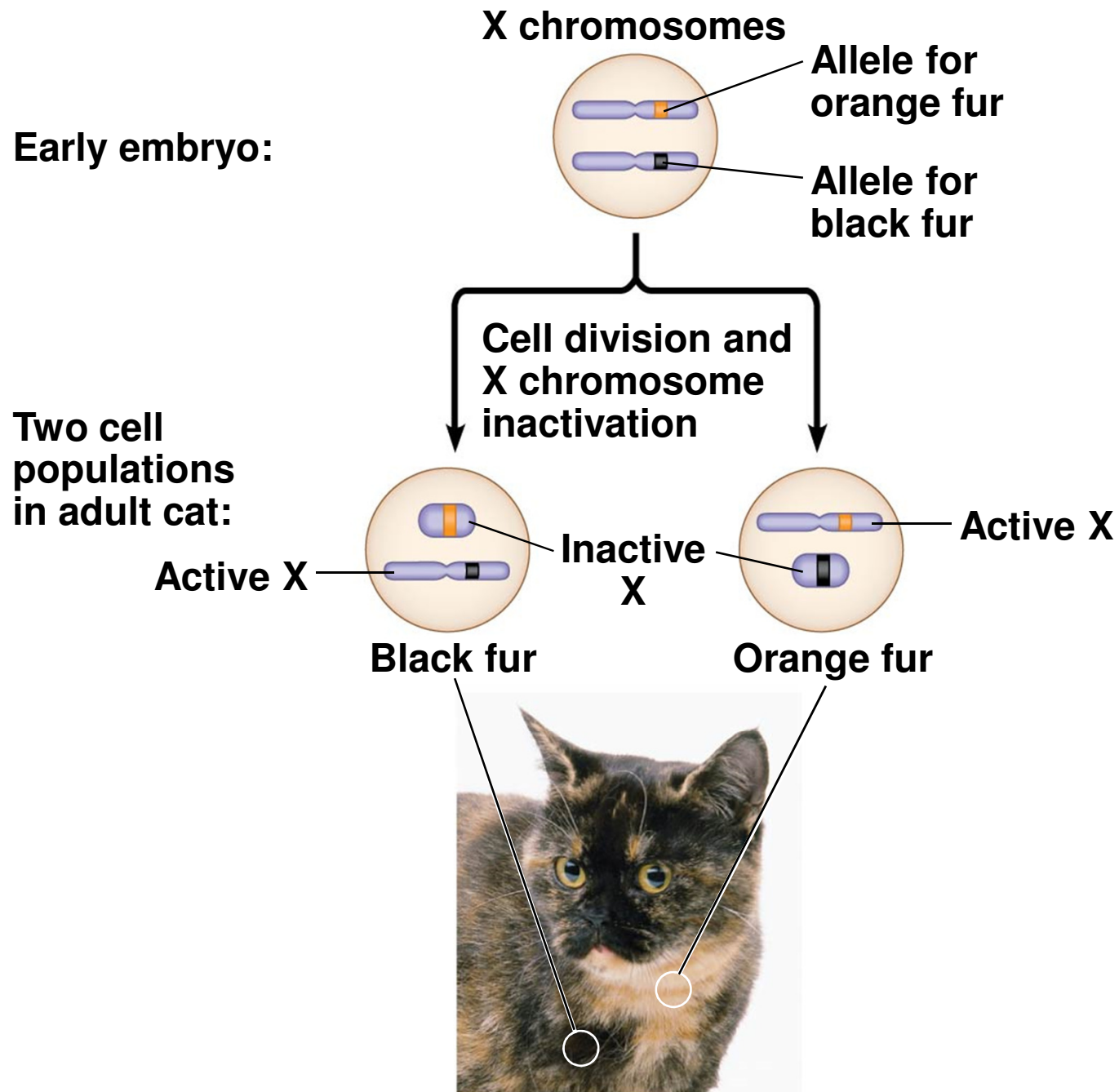
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- For a recessive X-linked trait to be expressed
 - A female needs two copies of the allele (homozygous)
 - A male needs only one copy of the allele (***hemizygous***)
 - X-linked recessive disorders are much more common in males than in females
 - Any male receiving the recessive allele from his mother will express the trait
 - But females can inherit the trait from an affected father and a mother who is a carrier

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- Some disorders caused by recessive alleles on the X chromosome in humans
 - Color blindness (mostly X-linked)
 - **Duchenne muscular dystrophy**
 - Progressive weakening and loss of muscle tissue
 - **Hemophilia**
 - Absence of blood clotting proteins resulting in excessive bleeding following injury

X Inactivation in Female Mammals

- In mammalian females, one of the two X chromosomes in each cell is randomly inactivated during embryonic development
- The inactive X condenses into a **Barr body**
- If a female is heterozygous for a particular gene located on the X chromosome, she will be a mosaic for that character

Figure 12.8



Linked genes

- Genes that tend to be inherited together because they are located near each other on the same chromosome are called **linked genes**
- Ex: Morgan found that body color and wing size are usually inherited together in specific combinations
 - He reasoned that since these genes did not assort independently, they were on the same chromosome
- Can use Chi-Square Test to determine if genes are linked
 - Null hypothesis: Genes assort independently (predict resulting phenotypic ratio)
 - If null is rejected, then the genes may be linked

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- Morgan discovered that even when two genes were on the same chromosome, some recombinant phenotypes were observed
 - He proposed that some process must occasionally break the physical connection between genes on the same chromosome
 - That mechanism was the **crossing over** between homologous chromosomes
 - End portions of two nonsister chromatids trade places during Prophase I of Meiosis
 - Accounts for recombination of linked genes

Linkage maps

- The recombination frequency depends on the distance between genes on a chromosome
 - The farther apart two genes are, the higher the probability that a crossover will occur between them and therefore the higher the recombination frequency
- A **linkage map** is a genetic map of a chromosome based on recombination frequencies
- Distances between genes can be expressed as **map units**
 - One map unit represents a 1% recombination frequency

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- Genes that are far apart on the same chromosome can have a recombination frequency near 50%
 - Such genes are physically linked by being on the same chromosome
 - But genetically unlinked and sort independently
 - Thus behave as if found on different chromosomes!

Abnormal Chromosome Number

- In **nondisjunction**, pairs of homologous chromosomes do not separate normally
 - Occurs during anaphase of meiosis
 - As a result, one gamete receives two of the same type of chromosome, and another gamete receives no copy
- **Monosomy** = Zygote has only one copy of a particular chromosome
- **Trisomy** = Zygote has three copies of a particular chromosome
 - Ex: Down syndrome (Trisomy 21)

Aneuploidy of Sex Chromosomes

- Nondisjunction of sex chromosomes produces a variety of aneuploid conditions
 - Tend to be less severe than autosomal aneuploids
- Klinefelter syndrome is the result of an extra chromosome in a male, producing XXY individuals
- Females with trisomy X (XXX) have no unusual physical features except being slightly taller than average
- Monosomy X, called Turner syndrome, produces XO females, who are sterile
 - It is the only known viable monosomy in humans!

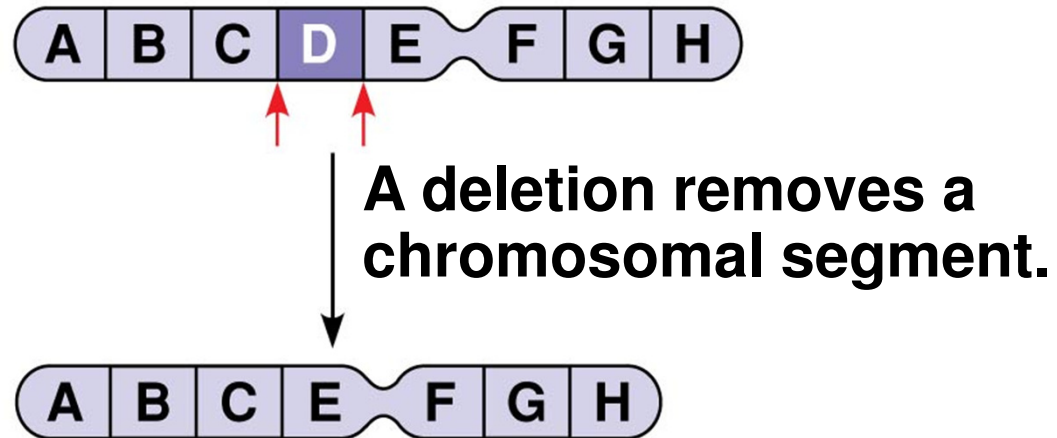
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- **Polyploidy** is a condition in which an organism has more than two complete sets of chromosomes
 - Triploidy ($3n$) is three sets of chromosomes
 - Tetraploidy ($4n$) is four sets of chromosomes
 - Polyploidy is common in plants, but not animals

Alterations of Chromosome Structure

- Errors in meiosis or damaging agents like radiation can cause breakage of a chromosome
- This can lead to four types of changes in chromosome structure
 - **Deletion** removes a chromosomal segment
 - Missing certain genes
 - **Duplication** repeats a segment
 - **Inversion** reverses orientation of a segment within a chromosome
 - **Translocation** moves a segment from one chromosome to another

Figure 12.14a

(a) Deletion



(b) Duplication

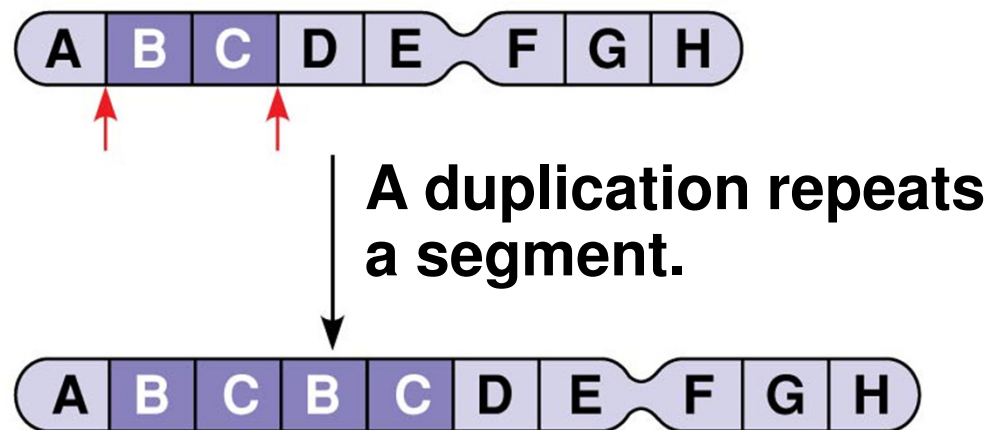
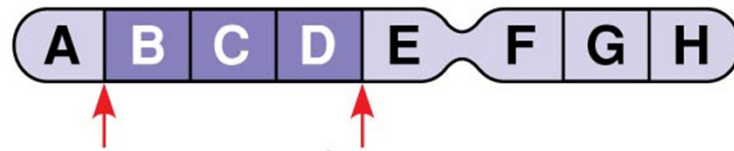


Figure 12.14b

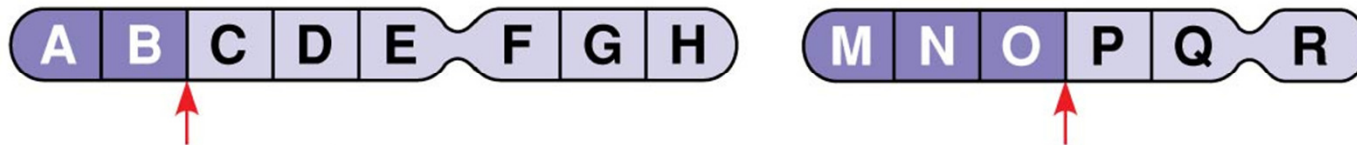
(c) Inversion



An inversion reverses a segment within a chromosome.



(d) Translocation



A translocation moves a segment from one chromosome to a nonhomologous chromosome.

